

5-2018

An Examination of Singular Third-Person Pronoun Usage Between Spoken and Written English by Chinese ESL Students

Rui Gu

St. Cloud State University

Follow this and additional works at: https://repository.stcloudstate.edu/engl_etds

Recommended Citation

Gu, Rui, "An Examination of Singular Third-Person Pronoun Usage Between Spoken and Written English by Chinese ESL Students" (2018). *Culminating Projects in English*. 133.
https://repository.stcloudstate.edu/engl_etds/133

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by the Department of English at theRepository at St. Cloud State. It has been accepted for inclusion in Culminating Projects in English by an authorized administrator of theRepository at St. Cloud State. For more information, please contact rswexelbaum@stcloudstate.edu.

An Examination of Singular Third-Person Pronoun Usage Between Spoken and Written

English by Chinese ESL Students

by

Rui Gu

A Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of

St. Cloud State University

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

Master of Arts in

English: Teaching English as a Second Language

May 2018

Committee Members:

Choonkyong Kim, Chairperson

Edward M. Sadrai

Tim R. Fontaine

Abstract

The objective of this project was to study the use of third-person singular pronouns in Chinese English as a second language (ESL) students' spoken and written English. Specifically, this research studied the possible interpretations of Chinese students' inability to use correct third-person pronouns with gender features (i.e. mixing "she" and "he") while the speaker is speaking spontaneously. This study also examined the indistinguishability between masculine and feminine pronouns in spoken Mandarin Chinese and the effect of transference between the native language (Mandarin Chinese, L1), the target language (English, L2), and the lack of communicative English learning. This study reported the error rate of third-person pronoun usage in both spoken and written English of 48 ESL (English as a second language) Chinese students in a Midwest university in the U.S. By using the Suppliance in Obligatory Contexts (SOC) strategy, quantitative research procedures, and within-subject design, this study examined and analyzed the difference in third-person pronoun usage between spoken and written English by Chinese ESL students. The research discovered that the Chinese students had more third-person pronoun usage errors in spoken English than in written English, yet more research is needed to make a stronger case. The future implications for Mandarin Chinese ESL students are that they might benefit from high L2 input exposure and sufficient time to self-monitor when speaking in an L2 environment.

Keywords: masculine and feminine subject pronouns, negative transference, competence and performance, Mandarin Chinese, Suppliance in Obligatory Contexts, qualitative research, within-subject design

Table of Contents

	Page
List of Figures	6
List of Tables	7
Chapter	
I: Introduction	9
II: Literature Review.....	11
Overview of Pronoun Form in Mandarin Chinese.....	11
Subject Pronouns	11
Other Cases of Third-Person Pronouns.....	13
Inter-Language and Transferences.....	16
Competence and Performance	17
Communicative English Teaching Environment in China	19
III: Methodology.....	22
Participants.....	22
Materials	24
Silent Films	24
Narrative Task of the Films	25
Audio Recorder and a Timer.....	25
Procedure and Data Collection	26
Training Session.....	26
Data Analysis	28
Oral Task.....	28

Chapter	Page
Written Task.....	29
Oral vs Written Task.....	29
IV: Results	30
Sample of Participant’s Narrations	30
Oral Task Results	31
Using “He” Error in Spoken English	31
Using “She” Error in Spoken English.....	32
Using “He” Error Rate vs Using “She” Error Rate in Spoken English	33
Combined Error Rate in Spoken English.....	33
Written Task Results.....	35
Using “He” Error in Written English.....	35
Using “She” Error in Written English	36
Using “He” Error Rate vs Using “She” Error Rate in Written English	36
Combined Error Rate in Written English.....	37
Oral Task vs Written Task Results	38
Spoken vs Written in Group IEP	38
Spoken vs Written in Group E.COMP.....	39
Spoken vs Written in Group SENIORS.....	40
Total Oral Using “He” Error Rate vs Total Written	
Using “He” Error Rate	41
Total Spoken Using “She” Error Rate vs Total Written	
Using “She” Error Rate.....	42

Chapter	Page
Total Spoken Combined Error Rate vs Total Written	
Combined Error Rate	42
V: Discussion	45
Oral Task Discussion	45
Written Task Discussion	47
Oral Task vs Written Task Discussion.....	51
VI: Conclusion	53
Implication to Chinese ESL classroom.....	54
Limitations	55
Future Study.....	56
References.....	60
Appendices	
A: IRB Approval.....	64
B: Narrative Task.....	65
C: Tables of Pronoun Usage	67

List of Figures

Figure	Page
1: Using “He” Error Rate vs Using “She” Error Rate in Spoken Among Three Groups.....	46
2: Combined Error Rate in Spoken Among Three Groups.....	47
3: Using “He” Error Rate vs Using “She” Error Rate in Written Among Three Groups	49
4: Combined Error Rate in Written Among Three Groups.....	50
5: Total Speaking Combined Error Rate vs Total Writing Combined Error Rate Among Three Groups	51

List of Tables

Table	Page
1: Subject Pronouns in English and Mandarin Chinese.....	12
2: Plural Subject Pronouns in English and Mandarin Chinese	13
3: Other Cases of Singular Pronoun in English and Mandarin Chinese	14
4: Other Cases of Plural Pronouns in English Mandarin Chinese	15
5: Oral Forms for Third-Person Singular Pronouns Between English and Mandarin Chinese	15
6: Written Forms for Third-Person Singular Pronouns Between English and Mandarin Chinese.....	16
7: Within-Subject Design.....	27
8: Significance Between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and SENIORS and IEP of Using “He” Error Rate in Spoken	32
9: Significance Between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and SENIORS and IEP of Using “She” Error Rate in Spoken.....	33
10: Using “He” Error Rate vs Using “She” Error Rate in Spoken	33
11: Significance Between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and SENIORS and IEP of Combined Error Rate among Three Groups in Spoken.....	34
12: Significance Between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and SENIORS and IEP of Using “He” Error Rate in Written.....	35
13: Significance Between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and SENIORS and IEP of Using “She” Error Rate in Written.....	36
14: Using “He” Error Rate vs Using “She” Error Rate in Written	37

Table	Page
15: Significance Between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and SENIORS and IEP of Combined Error Rate Among Three Groups in Written.....	38
16: T-test of Error Rate in Group IEP.....	39
17: T-test of Error Rate in Group E.COMP	40
18: T-test of Error Rate in Group SENIORS	41
19: Total Oral Using “He” Error Rate vs Total Written Using “He” Error Rate.....	42
20: Total Oral Using “She” Error Rate vs Total Written Using “She” Error Rate.....	42
21: Combined Error Rate in Spoken vs Combined Error Rate in Written	43
22: Using “He” Error Rate and Using “She” Error Rate in Oral Task	45
23: Using “He” Error Rate vs Using “She” Error Rate in Written Task	48

Chapter I: Introduction

Many English as a second language (ESL) teachers' experiences in ESL classrooms may notice that an interesting issue among Mandarin Chinese ESL students regards their inaccuracy in distinguishing between gender pronouns in spoken English. For example, when describing their father in English, students will interchange "she" and "he" as subject pronouns when referring to their fathers. The misuse of he/she in English oral performance by Chinese ESL students, is commonly found by some studies (Zhou, 2014). The Chinese ESL students do not make these specific errors because they are unable to recognize or assess the biological gender of a human race; it is debated why the gender errors of pronoun usage in English become a prevalent and common problem among Chinese ESL learners. This also becomes my inspiration for looking further into this study, because even though as a graduate student at a university in the US Midwest who has been exposed to English for more than a decade, I am still making gender errors in English in a communicative context. No matter how proficient the Chinese students are in English, they may use a pronoun "she" when they meant or they should have used "he" to refer to male (Dong, Wen, Zeng & Ji, 2014).

All languages have personal pronouns, in some cases taking the form of clitics, so L1 transfer into the L2 is possible (Slabakova, 2017). The negative transfer from L1 Mandarin to L2 English might account for the results for the gender errors that the Chinese students make in English. In spoken Mandarin, there is no distinction between the third-person singular pronouns; they are both pronounced the same, /ta/, for both genders. The hearer infers the distinction between the gender differences of a pronoun according to the context (Su, Molinaro, Gillon-Dowens, Tsai, Wu & Carreiras, 2016). In oral Mandarin discourse, "speakers may not have to activate semantic gender information when using pronouns" (Liang, Wen & Dong, 2017, p. 2). It

is likely that Chinese speakers do not usually process biological gender for linguistic purposes, and the mixed use of “he” and “she” is likely a result of deficient processing of gender information in the conceptualizer (Dong, et al., 2014). Therefore, a Chinese student might produce a string of sentences in English like, “My father is a kind man. *She* supports me in school.” Mandarin Chinese ESL students may inappropriately transfer knowledge from their L1 to their L2, thus making no oral distinction between genders in subject pronouns.

However, written Mandarin has different grammatical rules of pronoun usage than spoken Mandarin. There is distinction of gender made between the male *he* (他) and the female *she* (她) in written Mandarin Chinese. The gender specificity of the pronouns such as *he* (他) and *she* (她) in written Mandarin is also considered to be symmetrical (Su, et al., 2016). However, there is not much research regarding the problem of L2 gender errors in written English by Chinese learners. Therefore, this study will examine if the phenomenon occurs in spoken English of Chinese ESL students, will it also occur frequently in written English. My research question asks: what is the difference in singular third-person pronoun usage between spoken and written English by Chinese ESL students?

This study seeks to explore the common problem concerning pronoun usage in both spoken and written English and relate transference of information from the L1 as a possible explanation for it. Additionally, this study will outline some future instructional implications regarding Mandarin Chinese English learners’ usage of pronouns in gender.

Chapter II: Literature Review

Overview of Pronoun Form in Mandarin Chinese

When native Mandarin Chinese speakers encounter the English pronominal system, they undoubtedly notice the complexity in contrast to their native tongue. The pronominal system in spoken Mandarin Chinese is simpler than English, because Mandarin has fewer words that have multiple cases. This study focused on all third-person singular pronoun usage.

Subject pronouns. A major difference between these two languages is that pronominal gender distinction in subject pronouns becomes context-based due to the singular Chinese pronoun “tā” being used to represent “he,” “she,” and “it” in oral Mandarin Chinese (Li & Thompson, 1981). In the written form, “he,” “she,” and “it,” each have a unique character to represent them (“他”/ “he”, “她”/ “she”, and “它”/ “it”), but in spoken form of Mandarin, they are homophones: they have the different spellings but the same sound. For example, English homophone words such as “write” and “right”, “meat” and “meet” are pronounced the same. See Table 1 for the comparative chart of subject pronouns in English and Mandarin Chinese. The difference between the two language systems and their gender-related subject pronouns were examined specifically in regard to the inaccuracy of usage among Mandarin Chinese speakers of English, and the possibility of cross-lingual influence from their L1 to their L2.

Table 1

Subject Pronouns in English and Mandarin Chinese. The Material and Information Adapted from Mandarin Chinese: A Functional Reference Grammar (Li & Thompson, 1981, p. 134).

Subject Pronouns in English	Subject Pronouns in Mandarin Chinese	
	Written Form	Spoken Form
I	我	[wǒ]
You (singular)	你	[nǐ]
He	他	[tā]
She	她	[tā]
It	它	[tā]
We	我們	[wǒmen]
You (plural)	你們	[nǐmen]
They	他們	[tāmen]

In Table 1, the written forms of third-person singular pronouns are different, however, the IPA translations are the same and the tones are also exactly the same. The spoken forms of third-person singular pronouns are one hundred percent identical.

On the other hand, there is only one word “they” which describes the plural of the third-person pronoun in both spoken and written English, and spoken Mandarin has the same pattern. Nevertheless, there is a gender distinction between female “they” and male “they” in written Mandarin, which are “他们” and “她们” as you can see in Table 2 below.

Table 2

Plural Subject Pronouns in English and Mandarin Chinese

Subject Pronouns in English	Subject Pronouns in Mandarin Chinese	
	Written Form	Spoken Form
They (male)	他們	[tāmen]
They (female)	她們	[tāmen]

According to Table 2, the rules of plural third-person pronouns in Mandarin cannot be transferred from L1 Mandarin to L2 English because there is only one word in English “they” which can be used to describe both genders in English.

Other cases of third-person pronouns. The pattern of other cases of third-person singular pronouns such as object, possessive, and reflective has the similar partners as subject pronouns in Mandarin Chinese.

Table 3

Other Cases of Singular Pronouns in English and Mandarin Chinese

Object Pronouns in English	Object Pronouns in Mandarin Chinese	
	Written Form	Spoken Form
him	他	[tā]
her	她	[tā]
Possessive Pronouns in English	Possessive Pronouns in Mandarin Chinese	
	Written Form	Spoken Form
his	他的	[tāde]
her	她的	[tāde]
Reflexive Pronouns in English	Reflexive Pronouns in Mandarin Chinese	
	Written Form	Spoken Form
himself	他自己	[tāziji]
herself	她自己	[tāziji]

The pattern of other cases of plural third-person pronouns such as, object, possessive, and reflexive also have similar patterns to plural subject pronouns in Mandarin Chinese.

Table 4

Other Cases of Plural Pronouns in English and Mandarin Chinese

Object Pronouns in English	Object Pronouns in Mandarin Chinese	
	Written Form	Spoken Form
Them (male)	他们	[tāmen]
Them (female)	她们	[tāmen]
Possessive Pronouns in English	Possessive Pronouns in Mandarin Chinese	
	Written Form	Spoken Form
Theirs (male)	他们的	[tāmende]
Theirs (female)	她们的	[tāmende]
Reflexive Pronouns in English	Reflexive Pronouns in Mandarin Chinese	
	Written Form	Spoken Form
Themselves (male)	他们自己的	[tāmenzijide]
Themselves (female)	她们自己的	[tāmenzijide]

This study will only focus on third-person singular pronoun usage. The following tables eliminate the first, second, and plural form of pronouns (See Table 5 and 6). (Please note that, the tones for all the third-person pronoun usage are the same. In Tables 5 and 6, the tone is also eliminated to make the comparison clear).

Table 5

Oral Forms for Third-Person Singular Pronouns Between English and Mandarin Chinese

	Nominative	Possessive	Accusative	Reflexive
Male	he-/ta/	his-/tade/	him-/ta/	himself-/taziji/
Female	she-/ta/	her-/tade/	her-/ta/	herself-/taziji/

Table 6

Written Forms for Third-Person Singular Pronouns Between English and Mandarin Chinese

	Nominative	Possessive	Accusative	Reflexive
Male	he-他	his-他的	him-他	himself-他自己
Female	she-她	her-她的	her-她	herself-她自己

Inter-Language and Transferences

There is empirical evidence that learners extract from the patterns of other languages they know as they try to decipher the complexities of the new language they are learning (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). In *Foundations of Second Language Acquisition*, Muriel Saville-Troike (2006) says that, “cross-lingual influence, or transfer of prior knowledge from L1 to L2, is one of the processes that is involved in inter-language development” (p. 19). L1 transference not only occurs in Mandarin Chinese, but also other L2 studies have investigated language transfer issues. Some studies on linguistic accuracy have aimed at the sources of the mistakes among L1 interference (Tang, 2015). The interference involves many aspects, such as word order, form of literal translation of Thai words into English, and noun determiners (Bennui, 2008). For instance, the redundancy style of Thai writing can be found in the students’ written English (Bennui, 2008). Inter-language is viewed as a separate system between L1 and L2 that forms when acquiring a new language (Tarone, 2006). Patterns in the evolving inter-language system among Mandarin Chinese ESL learners are reflected by errors such as, “inappropriate transfer of a first language pattern to the second language” (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 208), and this might be a cause of the confusion of gender usage in Chinese learners’ speech. Negative transfer is when an L1 rule or system is applied to the target language and it is inappropriate or interferes with

intelligibility (Saville-Troike, 2006). However, transfer of information from L1 to L2 can be divided into two types which can affect L2 acquisition: positive transfer and negative transfer. When an L1 rule or system is applied to the target language and is appropriate, it reflects positive transfer (Saville-Troike, 2006). Chinese learners of French with a proficient L2 of English rarely make superficial relations but rather systematic associations between French and English tenses. Since French and English both belong to similar language systems, it also illustrates more positive transfer (Cai & Cai, 2015). Both negative and positive transfer can be considered interdependent upon first language and second language skills learned in an academic setting. For example, a Chinese ESL student, who arrives in the US, understanding the concept of “She” in written Mandarin, only must acquire a new label in English for an already-existing concept.

Competence and Performance

Linguistic competence is the “knowledge of a language represented by the mental grammar that accounts for speakers’ linguistic ability and creativity” (Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams, 2007, p. 559). Competence and performance interact with each other (Sag & Wasow, 2011). If one considers Chinese ESL learners’ oral performance of pronoun usage alone, the reason for negative transference from L1 as the explanation of the poor performance of pronoun usage will be very clear. If a Chinese ESL student has a high accuracy of pronoun usage in gender in written English, and one studies the written performance of pronoun usage in gender in English alone, they may also draw the conclusion that it is because of the positive transference from L1. L2 learners’ communicative performance is associated with their linguistic competence (Kowal, O’Connell, & Sabin, 1975). My study also includes the examination of the written performance, and talks about the performance of pronoun usage in gender in both spoken and written English.

“Competence is perfect; performance is imperfect. Competence is ideal; performance is not ideal” (Koffi, 2010, p. 42). Assuming a Chinese ESL student shows a fairly high or a nearly perfect percentage of third-person pronoun usage in written English, one could hypothesize that his/her grammar performance is highly proficient and one can assume that the “use of linguistic competence in the production and comprehension of language” (Fromkin, et al., 2007, p. 565) is almost perfect, and one can consider that he/she has already acquired the competence of the third-person pronoun rules. There is no distinction of pronoun usage between spoken English and written English, and if one considers the Chinese students have already acquired competence of the third-person pronoun rules in written English, the Chinese ESL students are expected to perform nearly perfectly in spoken English as well. However, if Chinese ESL students show a higher accuracy of third-person pronoun usage in written English than they do in spoken, what is the alternative interpretation of this phenomenon? Can the negative transfer from L1 fully explain the misuse of gender for pronouns? Mandarin third-person pronouns are sometimes not symmetrically organized; this feature could result in different patterns of processing of gender information in writing and in speaking of a L2. This is a matter that has infrequently been addressed in psycholinguistics (Su & Brain, 2016). Are there other factors that might cause the poor oral performance of pronoun gender usage, such as, lack of attention (Zhou, 2014), fatigue, and fear? The L2 learner tends to monitor his/her own form, so the learners may use the patterns or grammatical rules in L2 as a “monitor”, which will allow them to make some adjustment and change what “the acquired system has produced” (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 106). The response time might be another explanation of their poor oral performance because the monitoring takes place only when the speaker or writer has a sufficient amount of time (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). Then, will the students have similar problems while writing if the

time is limited? Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) also claim that “anxious and non-anxious learners differ in their personal performance standards, procrastination, fear of evaluation, and concern over errors” (p. 562).

Communicative English Teaching Environment in China

Nowadays, English is the most popular language in the world and there are more non-native English speakers using English to communicate than native English speakers. There are approximately 320-380 million native English speakers, and there are about 300-500 million people in the world who speak English as a second language (Crystal, 2003). According to the Chinese census in 2010, China still holds the largest population in the world, and China also has one of the largest populations of English learners (Galloway & Rose, 2015) and over 9 decades of English teaching and learning. However, with this large number of students, the traditional English teaching system in China has been focused more on writing than speaking. “English teaching in China is dominated by a teacher-centered, book-centered, grammar-translation method and an emphasis on rote memory” (Rao, 1996, p. 458). Functional oral proficiency in English is low in highly populated Asian nations, such as China and Japan (Galloway & Rose, 2015). In a traditional Chinese classroom, most of the interaction is from the teachers to students only, and there is no direct feedback from the students. Few students have an intuitive sense of speaking. Little interaction among students would appear in a Chinese classroom, which leads to the lack of oral proficiency. As a result, even after studying English for several years, the student might have acquired the skills to analyze sentence structures and to translate and appreciate English literature, but they remain at a loss when interacting with English speakers (Rao, 1996). Students always have a difficult time expressing their thoughts orally.

The Chinese government became aware of these shortcomings, and introduced several

different teaching syllabi and textbook series such as: *The College English Syllabus for Science and Technology Students* in 1985, the *English Curriculum Standards for Primary and Secondary Schools* in 2001, and the *Guidelines for Improving the Quality of Undergraduate Teaching* in 2001 (Feng, 2009). They were aware of the importance of communicative language teaching. All those changes required most secondary school teachers to teach English based on communication. The syllabi and textbooks were compiled based on all-round ability in reading, listening, speaking, and writing (Liao, 2004).

However, there are still many difficulties that would be hard to overcome. In East Asia, knowledge is something which the students consider to be transmitted by the teacher rather than discovered by the learners. The teacher-centered mode of learning thus becomes a normal model of learning in East Asian countries. This also means that most students from East Asia are more introverted than Western students in general (Rao, 2011). Since most methodology approved by the Chinese Government is imported from Western countries, these might not be adopted by Chinese learners, on account of the personality and the learning styles in East Asian countries. The students in China also sometimes “judge the methods ridiculous and inappropriate” (Rao, 1996, p. 459). Some students do not have the motivation and refuse to sit in a fluency circle and speak English with other Chinese students (Rao, 1996). They also do not enjoy playing communication games. They would rather choose to attend a lecture-based class and do intensive reading about grammar than take any classes that have communicative activities. While English teachers in China are aware of the importance of English communicative ability as interactions with foreigners increases; on the other hand, students have not responded positively to the communicative approach, convincing teachers to revert to the grammar-based method (Rao, 1996).

This phenomenon can be traced to the history of the Chinese traditional educational system, and the impact of Confucius' principles upon the system. Confucian moral thought is grounded in the concept of some basic human relationships: "ruler and subject, father and son, husband and wife, and older brother and younger brother. Each of these relationships is hierarchical" (Reagan, 2018, p. 204). Based on the Confucian idea, Chinese students must be polite and respect people of higher rank like father, brother, or teachers. Most of the time, they must be used to just listen to what their teacher lectures, and there would be a one-way unequal relationship only from teacher to students. Because of both the Chinese students' and teachers' attitudes in a classroom setting, and the lack of the appropriate methodology, the lack of English communicative competence is still identified as one of the biggest impediments preventing students from attaining a greater academic success and assimilating into American life (Wei, 2012).

To sum up the literature review, because of the possibility of transfer of the rules of third-person pronoun usage from L1 Mandarin to L2 English, the difference between the competence and performance, and the lack of communicative learning style in China, Chinese ESL students might incorrectly use the third-person singular pronoun in oral English. This brings me to a query that I wish to explore. Therefore, the research question for this study is: What is the difference in singular third-person pronoun usage between spoken and written English by Chinese ESL students?

Chapter III: Methodology

Participants

The participants for this research were 66 Chinese international students at a university in the Midwest, however, the data from 18 participants was discarded because it contained unmeaningful information. Some students did not perform enough third-person gender pronouns in the duration of interviews. The data that was collected and used for this research came from 48 students in total.

The age of the participants was from 18-24 years old. According to the classes they are currently taking, and their English proficiency test scores, 48 students were divided into three groups: 1) Group IEP (Intensive English Program), students who are currently enrolling in a 21-23 hours of English instruction class in an Intensive English Center (IEC). This group of students has the lowest English proficiency relative to the three groups; 2) Group E.COMP (English composition), students who have completed all the ESL courses and are currently studying in a composition course called introduction to rhetorical and analytical writing (this composition course is a compulsory English class that all the undergraduate students, both English speakers and Non-English speakers, must take on campus); 3) Group SENIORS, students who have completed the composition course and are currently on their last semester of their senior year. This group of students has the highest English proficiency relative to these three groups.

There are several personal attributes and characteristics that are worth examining regarding these Chinese international students.

First, the participants were schooled in their L1 (Mandarin Chinese) with academic instruction provided only in their first language. Although they have taken English classes since

they were 7 years old in China and they have a strong grasp of English pronoun usage, the classes were taught in their first language.

In addition, all the Chinese international students who apply to the university in the US must take either TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) or IELTS (International English Language Testing System) tests which are two of the most prestigious and widely respected English-language tests in the world. If their TOEFL scores are lower than 80 out of 120, or if their IELTS scores are lower than 5.5 out of 9, all the international students must take the paper-based Cambridge Michigan Language Assessments (CaMLA) English Placement Test (EPT) and an essay writing test before entering the first semester of their major courses. The EPT scores determine whether or not they need to take an IEC class. The students in Group IEP are not allowed to matriculate into an undergraduate program before they pass all the levels of IEC classes under university standards. They must focus on English studies, and they have to participate in approximately 80 hours of English instruction per month. Due to this, they might have certain demotivational attitudes towards the IEC classes they attend. If the students pass all the IEC classes, they must take two other advanced-level English for Academic Purposes (EAP) Reading & Writing classes before they enter the composition class. The students in Group E.COMP have already passed all the IEC and EAP classes and/or have passing grades for either the TOEFL & IELTS or EPT tests. The students in Group SENIORS have already passed the composition course and have been living in the US for almost two years. They are currently in their last semester of senior year and are ready to either graduate or apply for their masters. The reason this study categorizes the students into these three groups is because the gaps and the borders among these three groups are very clear. Their English proficiencies do not have vague

overlapping, and the study might relatively elicit more precise data among different English proficiency groups.

Moreover, most of the participants were from the same college in China. The actual period of exposure to English was not collected in this research; however, the approximate period of staying in the US can be assumed by current year of study at the university. The students from Groups IEP and E.COMP are in their first year of a two-year program, thus they have stayed roughly less than eight months. The students from Group SENIORS have stayed roughly close to two years. At the present, although most of the students have been exposed to a native English language environment for a while, instead of speaking to many native English speakers, most of the Chinese international students still tend to gather together with other Chinese students, and speak their L1 after they arrive in the US.

Materials

The materials used in this study were: 1) one silent film clip (divided up into 2 sections), 2) two narratives of the film tasks in both oral and written English: NF-A and NF-B (see Appendix B-1 & 2), 3) an audio recorder, and 4) a timer.

Silent films. The instruments involved in this study were two sections of a silent film clip. Using a silent film can ensure the participants are not influenced by the speakers of the target language in the film (Gass & Mackey 2007). The name of the video is “Date gone bad then great”, and it is a pantomime from Youtube (TheHorrorReviews, 2013). The film is four minutes and ten seconds in length, and it has been divided up into two sections. The divided sections then became two two-minute and five second excerpts. The background music of this pantomime was muted while doing the data collection to avoid distractions that could affect listening comprehension. The pantomime shows the plot line of a date between two teenagers. The

selection criteria and the reason for choosing this particular excerpt is that there are three characters with different genders and a series of identifiable actions for each character. For example, in a restaurant scene, the guy with short hair tries to hold the girl's hand, but the girl refuses; the other waiter sneezes on dishes, making those two people feel disgusted. The small number of characters and the clean stage of the pantomime are necessary to avoid complex plot lines and scenes that may confuse the students and cause them to not engage in the session. Each character also has distinct visual physical features. For example, one of the actors has blonde short hair, black pants, a white shirt and black tie; the actress has long brown hair, blue jeans, brown boots, a black wind breaker and a brown bag. This is also ideal for testing students' competence and performance of pronoun usage.

Narrative task of the films. Two narrative tasks based on the films were used for this study. A sample of directions for narrating film A (NF-A) is "describing every character that you saw with as much detail as possible, such as, age, gender, hair color, clothes, actions, etc." (see Appendix B-1). The sample of directions for narrating film B (NF-B) (see Appendix B-2) is similar to (NF-A). The reason for using these two similar narration tasks is that the narrative questions contain lots of characteristics of the actors and actresses, and the students may focus on the details of that information and may not be aware of their pronoun usage. The NF-B and NF-A are also ideal for eliciting the accuracy of gender usage of pronoun since there are 3 different characters they must describe, and they also have to describe a little about the relationship among those characters.

Audio recorder and a timer. An audio recorder and a timer were also involved in this study. There were time limits for both spoken tasks and written tasks. A timer was used to control the time while they were doing their tasks. The audio recorder recorded one of their oral

tasks from either NF-A or NF-B. According to the audio recording, the results of the accuracy of gender usage of pronoun were elicited.

Procedure and Data Collection:

Training session. Before showing the two film clips to the students, the author used another pantomime, “Evolution of love” from Youtube ([Marcucci, 2011](#)), which has very similar elements as the “Date gone bad then great,” to demonstrate how the students should present what they saw in each section. All the instructions and demonstrations were explained in Mandarin. The author of this study pointed at the screen to indicate which character was described and used many third-person pronouns. There is no distinction between third-person pronouns in gender in spoken Mandarin, and even though the third-person pronouns were used many times, the participants would not be aware of the difference between male and female pronouns in Mandarin. After viewing the demonstration, all the participants watched the two film excerpts. A brief introduction of the film, such as background information and/or the names of the main actors and actresses, was also provided.

Directions for narrating Film A (NF-A) and directions for narrating Film B (NF-B) were given to the students before they watched the actual films. Participants were given 30 seconds to read the questions for NF-A (see Appendix B-1) and NF-B (see Appendix B-2). Participants could either pause the films and tell the story or keep the film playing and tell the story.

A within-subject design (repeated measures design) of oral and written narratives from the participants was elicited by a film-narration task. Each group of participants was divided up into 2 small groups, and each small group had the same number of students. First, small group 1 watched film A and answered the NF-A by speaking English, and small group 2 watched film B and answered the NF-B by speaking English. Then small group 1 watched film B and answered

the NF-B by writing English, and small group 2 watched film A and answered the NF-A by writing English. For example, Group IEP had 10 students from 1 to 10. The Group IEP was divided into two small groups, IEP1 and IEP2. Students 1 to 5 were in IEP1 and students 6-10 were in IEP2. IEP1 watched film A and answered the NF-A by speaking English first and then they watched film B and answered the NF-B by writing English. IEP2 watched film B and answered the NF-B by speaking English first, and then they watched film A and answered the NF-A by writing English. The rest of the groups E.COMP and SENIORS did this counter-balance approach in the same manner. This procedure is also shown in Table 7 as follows:

Table 7

Within-Subject Design

	Film A, NF-A task	Film B, NF-B task	Group
Oral	1 to 5	6 to 10	IEP
	11 to 18	19 to 26	E.COMP
	27 to 37	38 to 48	SENIORS
Written	6 to 10	1 to 5	IEP
	19 to 26	11 to 18	E.COMP
	38 to 48	27 to 37	SENIORS

Note: Oral = oral task. Written= written task.

The reason that the participants did not do both oral and written tasks for the same film A or B is that the author wanted to avoid the participants being aware of the plot line relating to the same film.

Students were given two minutes in total to answer the questions and tell the story orally in English, because the clips are only two minutes long, and they could speak as the clips were playing. Both NF-A and NF-B oral tasks were recorded by a recorder. During the recording, their pronoun usage was monitored, and after they finished the oral task, the records were double checked for the accuracy of pronoun usage in gender.

Students were given five minutes to answer the questions and tell the story in written English, because students need more time in writing than in speaking. Both NF-A and NF-B written tasks were collected after they finished writing. The author also checked the accuracy of pronoun usage for their writing tasks.

Data Analysis

This study established a minimum number of students for the smallest possible group at ten. The student with the least number of pronoun usage in Group IEP had seven instances of such usage, thus the number of seven was set as the minimum number of pronouns necessary for inclusion in any group. The present study yields some highly relevant results by comparing the rates of accurate third-person pronoun usage in spoken and in written English.

The quantitative data method was used for this research to elicit more accurate results. The following analysis was used to gather data and to answer the research questions:

Oral task.

- The number of times of both male and female pronoun usage and the error rate of both male and female pronoun usage respectively from each individual's NF-A and NF-B results for both sections of the film.
- The tendency of error rate of both male and female pronoun usage respectively among Groups IEP, E.COMP and SENIORS.
- The difference between male and female pronoun usage error rate
- The number of times of total pronoun usage in both genders and the accurate rate of total pronoun usage in both genders
- The tendency of pronoun error rate in both genders among Groups IEP, E.COMP, and SENIORS.

Written task.

- The number of times of both male and female pronoun usage and the error rate of both male and female pronoun usage respectively from each individual's NF-A and NF-B results for both sections of the film.
- The tendency of error rate of both male and female pronoun usage respectively among Groups IEP, E.COMP and SENIORS.
- The difference between male and female pronoun usage error rate
- The number of times of total pronoun usage in both genders and the accurate rate of total pronoun usage in both genders
- The tendency of pronoun error rate in both genders among Groups IEP, E.COMP, and SENIORS.

Oral vs written task.

- The difference between spoken male pronoun usage error rate and written male pronoun usage error rate, spoken female pronoun usage error rate and written female pronoun usage error rate, and spoken total error rate and written total error rate in both genders within each group (IEP, E.COMP and SENIORS).
- The difference between spoken male pronoun usage error rate and written male pronoun usage error rate, spoken female pronoun usage error rate and written female pronoun usage error rate, and spoken total error rate and written total error rate in both genders among three groups (IEP, E.COMP and SENIORS).

Chapter IV: Results

Sample of Participant's Narrations

The following monologue is a sample script of error rate of male gender and female gender:

“On the stage, I saw a table and chairs.

*A man walks on the stage, he has a blonde hair, black pants and black shoes. **She** walks to a place and knocks the door.*

*A girl comes to open the door, and she has a brown hair and I think **he** is wearing an UGG boots.”*

Note: This is not an actual sample of student's script, the actual sample is anonymous to protect student's identities.

From this sample narration, when the student describes the girl on the stage, the correct pronoun the student should say or write is “she” in the last sentence; however, the student mistakenly uses “he” instead of the correct term “she”, and this is described as “Using ‘he’ Error” for the rest of this research. The number of feminine pronouns which the student is supposed to use in this sample script is two, therefore, the term “Using ‘he’ Error Rate” is used for the rest of this research to describe the percentage of using the masculine pronoun when the correct choice would have been feminine pronoun, which is 50% in this sample narration (because of using one correct “he” and one incorrect “he”, the male pronoun usage error rate is 1 error out of 2 times).

When the student describes the first man on the stage, the correct pronoun the student should say or write is “he” in the sentence of “*He walks to a place and knocks the door*”; however, the student mistakenly uses “she” instead the correct term “he”, and this is described as “Using ‘she’ Error” for the rest of this research. The number of masculine pronouns which the

student is supposed to use in this sample script is also two, therefore, the term “*Using ‘she’ Error Rate*” is used for the rest of this research to describe the percentage of using feminine pronoun when the correct choice would have been masculine pronoun, which is also 50% in this sample narration (because of using one correct “she” and one incorrect “she”, the female pronoun usage error rate is 1 error out of 2 times).

The total number of third-person pronoun usage in both genders is four, therefore, the term “*combined error rate*” is used for the rest of this research to describe the total error rate of both masculine pronoun and feminine pronoun, which is also 50% in this sample narration (because of using one correct “he” and one correct “she”, and one incorrect “he” and one incorrect “she”, the total pronoun usage error rate in both genders is 2 errors out of 4 times).

Oral Task Results

Using “he” error in spoken English. The first set of pronoun usage data was drawn from three groups in the oral part; the individual scores in Groups IEP, E.COMP, and SENIORS are presented in Table 8, Table 9, and Table 10 (see Appendix C).

The mean (average) error rate of using “he” in spoken English from Group IEP is 26.9%, from Group E.COMP is 17.5%, and from Group SENIORS is 14.5%. These results show that there is a 26.9% chance the students from Group IEP, 17.5% chance the students from Group E.COMP, and 14.5% chance the students from Group SENIORS would mistakenly use male gender pronouns instead of female gender pronouns. The total error rate of using “he” in spoken English for all the students is 18.1%.

From Table 11, the one-way ANOVA test reveals that the mean of error rate between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and IEP and SENIORS is $F = 1.860$ and significance is 0.121, 0.601, and 0.061 respectively; the sig column shows that the difference of using “he” error

rate in spoken English between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and IEP and E.COMP was not statistically significant.

Table 8

Significance Between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and SENIORS and IEP of Using “He” Error Rate in Spoken

group	Num	Mean	group	sig
IEP	10	26.9%	E.COMP	.172
E.COMP	16	17.5%	SENIORS	.601
SENIORS	22	14.5%	IEP	.061
Total	48	18.1%		

Note: Num = number of students in each group. sig = significance.

Using “she” error in spoken English. The second set of pronoun usage data was drawn from the three groups in the oral part; the individual scores in Groups IEP, E.COMP, and SENIORS are presented in Table 12, Table 13, and Table 14 (see Appendix C).

The mean (average) error rate of using “she” in spoken from Group IEP is 43.9%, from Group E.COMP is 43.6%, and from Group SENIORS is 48.0%. These results show that there is a 43.9% chance the students from Group IEP, 43.6% chance the students from Group E.COMP, and 48.0% chance the students from Group SENIORS would mistakenly use female gender pronouns instead of male gender pronouns. The total error rate of using “she” in spoken English for all the students is 45.7%.

From Table 15, the one-way ANOVA test reveals that the mean of error rate between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and IEP and SENIORS is $F = 0.198$ and significance is 0.982, 0.575, and 0.646 respectively; the sig column shows that the difference of using “she” error rate in spoken English between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and IEP and E.COMP was not statistically significant.

Table 9

Significance Between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and SENIORS and IEP of Using “She” Error Rate in Spoken

group	Num	Mean	group	sig
IEP	10	43.9%	E.COMP	.982
E.COMP	16	43.6%	SENIORS	.575
SENIORS	22	48.0%	IEP	.646
Total	48	45.7%		

Note: Num = number of students in each group. sig = significance.

Using “he” error rate vs using “she” error rate in spoken English. From Table 16, the total average of spoken using “he” errors rate of 48 students is 18.1 percent, whereas the total average of spoken using “she” errors rate of 48 students is 45.7 percent.

A paired sample t-test showed a statistically significant difference ($t = -6.277$ [47]; $p < 0.000$) between spoken using “he” error rate ($M = 18.1\%$) and spoken using “she” error rate ($M = 45.7\%$).

Table 10

Total Using “He” Error Rate vs Total Using “She” Error Rate in Spoken

	IEP	E.COMP	SENIORS	ALL	df	sig	t
S total M % wrong	26.9%	17.5%	14.5%	18.1%	47	.000	-6.277
S total F % wrong	43.9%	43.6%	48.0%	45.7%			

Note: S total M % Wrong = total using “he” error rate in spoken. S total F % wrong = total using “she” error rate in spoken. All = all students. df = degree of freedom. t = t-value.

Combined error rate in spoken English. The third set of pronoun usage data was drawn from the three groups in the oral part; the individual scores are presented in Table 17, Table 18, and Table 19 (see Appendix C).

The mean (average) error rate of pronoun usage from Group IEP is 41.2%, which shows that there are 41.2% chance the students form Group IEP would mistakenly use third-person pronouns.

The mean (average) error rate of pronoun usage in spoken English from Group IEP is 33.5%, from Group E.COMP is 29.5%, and from Group SENIORS is 41.2%. These results show that there is a 33.5% chance the students from Group IEP, 29.5% chance the students from Group E.COMP, and 41.2% chance the students from Group SENIORS would mistakenly use third-person pronouns. The total average error rate among the three groups in spoken English is 33.3%

From Table 20, the one-way ANOVA test revealed that the mean of error rate between IEP and E.COMP, and E.COMP and SENIORS are $F = 3.208$ and significance is 0.112 and 0.320 respectively; the significance shows that the difference between IEP and E.COMP, and E.COMP and SENIORS was not statistically significant. However, the mean of error rate between IEP and SENIORS is $F = 3.28$ and significance is 0.015 which is less than 0.050; the sig column shows that the difference of combined error rate in speaking between IEP and SENIORS was statistically significant.

Table 11

Significance Between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and SENIORS and IEP of Combined Error Rate Among Three Groups in Spoken

group	Num	Mean	group	sig
IEP	10	41.2%	E.COMP	.112
E.COMP	16	33.5%	SENIORS	.320
SENIORS	22	29.52%	IEP	.015
Total mean		33.3%		

Note: sig = significance. Num = Number of students

Written Task Results

Using “he” error in written English. The fourth set of pronoun usage data was drawn from the three groups in the written part; the individual scores are presented in Table 21, Table 22, and Table 23 (see Appendix C).

The mean (average) error rate of using “he” in written English from Group IEP is 0.0%, from Group E.COMP is 2.3%, and from Group SENIORS is 0.0%. These results show that there is a 0.0% chance the students from Group IEP, 2.3% chance the students from Group E.COMP, and 0.0% chance the students from Group SENIORS would mistakenly use male gender pronouns instead of female gender pronouns. The total error rate of using “he” in written English for all the students is 0.7%.

From Table 24, the one-way ANOVA test reveals that the mean of error rate between Groups IEP and E.COMP, Groups E.COMP and SENIORS, and Groups IEP and SENIORS is $F = 2.783$ and significance is 0.080, 0.033, and 1.000 respectively; the significance shows that the difference between IEP and E.COMP, and IEP and E.COMP was not statistically significant. However, the significance between E.COMP and SENIORS 0.033 which is less than 0.050; the sig column shows that the difference of using “he” error between E.COMP and SENIORS was statistically significant.

Table 12

Significance Between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and SENIORS and IEP of Using “He” Error Rate in Written

group	Num	Mean	group	sig
IEP	10	0.0%	E.COMP	.080
E.COMP	16	2.3%	SENIORS	.033
SENIORS	22	0.0%	IEP	1.000
Total	48	0.7%		

Note: Num = Number of students. sig = significance.

Using “she” error in written English. The fifth set of pronoun usage data was drawn from the three groups in the written part; the individual scores are presented in Table 25, Table 26, and Table 27 (see Appendix C).

The mean (average) error rate of using “she” in written from Group IEP is 4.2%, from Group E.COMP is 0.7%, and from Group SENIORS is 3.6%. These results show that there is a 4.2% chance the students from Group IEP, 0.7% chance the students from Group E.COMP, and 3.6% chance the students from Group SENIORS would mistakenly use female gender pronouns instead of male gender pronouns. The total error rate of using “she” in written English for all the students is 2.8%.

From Table 28, the one-way ANOVA test reveals that the mean of error rate between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and IEP and SENIORS is $F = 1.133$ and significance is 0.208, 0.198, and 0.824 respectively; the sig column shows that the difference of written using “she” error rate between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and IEP and E.COMP was not statistically significant.

Table 13

Significance Between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and SENIORS and IEP of Using “She” Error Rate in Written

group	Num	Mean	group	sig
IEP	10	4.2%	E.COMP	.208
E.COMP	16	0.7%	SENIORS	.198
SENIORS	22	3.6%	IEP	.824
Total	48	2.8%		

Note: Num = Number of students. sig = significance.

Using “he” error rate vs using “she” error rate in written English. From Table 29, the total average of written using “he” errors rate of 48 students is 0.7 percent, whereas the total average of written using “she” errors rate of 48 students is 2.8 percent.

A paired sample t-test did not show a statistically significant difference ($t = -1.876$ [47]; $p > 0.067$) between written using “he” error rate ($M = 0.7\%$) and written using “she” error rate ($M = 2.8\%$)

Table 14

Total Using “He” Error Rate vs Total Using “She” Error Rate in Written

	IEP	E.COMP	SENIORS	ALL	df	sig	t
Wr total M % wrong	0.0%	2.3%	0.0%	0.7%	47	.067	-1.876
Wr total F % wrong	4.2%	0.7%	3.6%	2.8%			

Note: Wr total M % Wrong = total using “he” error rate in written. Wr total F % wrong = total using “she” error rate in written. All = all students. sig = significance. df = degree of freedom. t = t-value.

Combined error rate in written English. The sixth set of pronoun usage data was drawn from three groups in written part; the individual scores are presented in Table 30, Table 31, and Table 32 (see Appendix C).

The mean (average) error rate of pronoun usage in written English from Group IEP is 2.3%, from Group E.COMP is 1.4%, and from Group SENIORS is 1.6%. These results show that there is a 2.3% chance the students from Group IEP, 1.4% chance the students from Group E.COMP, and 1.6% chance the students from Group SENIORS would mistakenly use third-person pronouns.

All three groups show relatively low percentage of error; they are all below 2.5%. There are 10 students in Group IEP, 16 students in Group E.COMP and 22 students in Group SENIORS. The total average error rate among three groups in spoken English is 1.7%

From Table 33, the one-way ANOVA test revealed that the mean of error rate between Groups IEP and E.COMP, Groups E.COMP and SENIORS, and Groups IEP and SENIORS is $F = 0.218$ and significance is 0.517, 0.828 and 0.618 respectively; the sig column shows that the difference of written combine error rate between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and IEP and SENIORS was not statistically significant.

Table 15

Significance Between IEP and E.COMP, E.COMP and SENIORS, and SENIORS and IEP of Combined Error Rate Among Three Groups in Written

group	Num	Mean	group	sig
IEP	10	2.3%	E.COMP	.517
E.COMP	16	1.4%	SENIORS	.828
SENIORS	22	1.6%	IEP	.618
Total mean		1.7%		

Note: Num = Number of students. sig = significance.

Oral Task vs Written Task Results

Spoken vs written in Group IEP. Table 34 shows the t-test between spoken and written English within Group IEP. The t-test shows that the significance between spoken using “he” error rate and written using “he” error rate, between spoken using “she” error rate and written using “she” error rate, and between and total spoken combined error rate and total written combined error rate are 0.06, 0.01 and 0.00 respectively. All the significance is less than 1% or 5%, and the significance shows that the difference of all the error rates between spoken and written in Group IEP was statistically significant. The 10 students in Group IEP show a lower error rate in written than they did in spoken.

Table 16

T-test of Error Rate in Group IEP

	mean	number of students in IEP	t	df	sig
S M E rate	26.9%	10	3.594	9	0.06
Wr M E rate	0.0%	10			
S F E rate	43.9%	10	4.902	9	0.01
Wr F E rate	4.2%	10			
S total E rate	41.2%	10	7.587	9	0.00
Wr total E rate	2.3%	10			

Note: S M E rate = spoken using “he” error rate. Wr M E rate = written using “he” error rate. S F E rate = spoken using “she” error rate. Wr F E rate = written using “she” error rate. S total E rate = spoken combined error rate. Wr total E rate = written combined error rate. IEP number: number of students in Group IEP.

Spoken vs written in Group E.COMP. Table 35 shows the t-test between spoken and written English within Group E.COMP. The t-test shows that the significance between spoken using “he” error rate and written using “he” error rate, between spoken using “she” error rate and written using “she” error rate, and between and spoken combined error rate and written combined error rate are 0.09, 0.00 and 0.00 respectively. All the significance is less than 1% or 5%, and the significance shows that the difference of all the error rates between spoken and written in Group E.COMP was statistically significant. The 16 students in Group E.COMP show a lower error rate in written than they did in spoken.

Table 17

T-test of Error Rate in Group E.COMP

	mean	number of students in E.COMP	t	df	sig
S M E rate	17.5%	16			
Wr M E rate	2.3%	16	3.009	15	0.09
S F E rate	43.6%	16			
Wr F E rate	0.7%	16	8.114	15	0.00
S total E rate	33.5%	16			
Wr total E rate	1.4%	16	10.819	15	0.00

Note: S M E rate = spoken using “he” error rate. Wr M E rate = written using “he” error rate. S F E rate = spoken using “she” error rate. Wr F E rate = written using “she” error rate. S total E rate = spoken combined error rate. Wr total E rate = written combined error rate. IEP number: number of students in Group E.COMP.

Spoken vs written in Group SENIORS. Table 36 shows the t-test between spoken and written English within Group SENIORS. The t-test shows that the significance between spoken using “he” error rate and written using “he” error rate, between spoken using “she” error rate and written using “she” error rate, and between and spoken combined error rate and written combined error rate are 0.00, 0.00 and 0.00 respectively. All the significance is less than 1% or 5%, and the significance shows that the difference of all the error rates between spoken and written in Group SENIORS was statistically significant. The 22 students in Group IEP show a lower error rate in written than they did in spoken.

Table 18

T-test of Error Rate in Group SENIORS

	mean	number of students in SENIORS	t	df	sig
S M E rate	14.59%	22	6.314	21	0.00
Wr M E rate	0.0%	22			
S F E rate	48.0%	22	7.799	21	0.00
Wr F E rate	3.6%	22			
S total E rate	29.5%	22	11.473	21	0.00
Wr total E rate	1.6%	22			

Note: S M E rate = spoken using “he” error rate. Wr M E rate = written using “he” error rate. S F E rate = spoken using “she” error rate. Wr F E rate = written using “she” error rate. S total E rate = spoken combined error rate. Wr total E rate = written combined error rate. IEP number: number of students in Group SENIORS.

Total oral using “he” error rate vs total written using “he” error rate. From Table 37, the total average of spoken using “he” error rate of 48 students is 18.1 percent, whereas the total average of written using “he” error rate of 48 students is 0.7 percent.

A paired sample t-test showed a statistically significant difference ($t = 6.781$ [47]; $p < 0.000$) between spoken using “he” error rate ($M = 18.1\%$) and written using “he” error rate ($M = 0.7\%$). Students show a lower using “he” error rate in written than they do in spoken.

Table 19

Total Oral Using “He” Error Rate vs Total Written Using “He” Error Rate

	IEP	E.COMP	SENIORS	ALL	df	sig	t
S total M % wrong	26.9%	17.5%	14.5%	18.1%	47	.000	6.781
W total M % wrong	0.0%	2.3%	0.0%	0.7%			

Note: S total M % Wrong = total using “he” error rate in spoken. Total W M % wrong = total using “he” error rate in written. All = all students. sig = significant. df = degree of freedom. t = t-value.

Total oral using “she” error rate vs total written using “she” error rate. From Table 38, the total average of spoken using “she” error rate of 48 students is 45.7 percent, whereas the total average of written using “she” error rate of 48 students is 2.8 percent.

A paired sample t-test showed a statistically significant difference ($t = -12.242$ [47]; $p < 0.000$) between spoken using “she” error rate ($M = 45.7\%$) and written using “she” error rate ($M = 2.8\%$). Students show a lower using “she” error rate in written than they do in spoken.

Table 20

Total Oral Using “She” Error Rate vs Total Written Using “She” Error Rate

	IEP	E.COMP	SENIORS	ALL	df	sig	t
S total F % wrong	43.9%	43.6%	48.0%	45.7%	47	.000	12.242
W total F % wrong	4.2%	0.7%	3.6%	2.8%			

Note: S total F % Wrong = total using “she” error rate in spoken. Total W F % wrong = total using “she” error rate in written. All = all students. sig = significant. df = degree of freedom. t = t-value.

Total oral combined error vs total written combined error rate. From Table 39, the total average of spoken combined error rate of 48 students is 33.3 percent, whereas the total

average of written combined error rate of 48 students is 1.7 percent. We can obviously see that there is a huge gap between the spoken average error rate and the written average error rate.

A paired sample t-test showed a statistically significant difference ($t = 16.721$ [47]; $p < 0.000$) between total spoken combined error rate ($M = 33.3\%$) and total written combined error rate ($M = 1.7\%$). Students show a lower error rate of pronoun usage in written than they do in spoken.

Table 21

Combined Error Rate in Spoken vs Combined Error Rate in Written

	IEP	E.COMP	SENIORS	ALL	df	sig	t
S total % wrong	41.2%	33.5%	29.5%	33.3%	47	.000	16.721
W total % wrong	2.3%	1.4%	1.6%	1.7%			

Note: S total % Wrong = total spoken combined error rate. W total % wrong = total written combined error rate. All = all students. sig = significant. df = degree of freedom. t = t-value.

To sum up the results, the t-tests and ANOVAs show that there is no statistically significant difference between the majority of comparative sets. Those comparative sets with statistically significant differences are as follows:

- between spoken using “he” error rate and spoken using “she” error rate
- total combined error rate in speaking between Groups IEP and SENIORS
- written using “he” error rate between Groups E.COMP and SENIORS
- all the error rates between spoken and written in Group IEP
- all the error rates between spoken and written in Group E.COMP
- all the error rates between spoken and written in Group SENIORS
- between spoken using “she” error rate and written using “she” error means

- between total spoken combined error means and total written combined error means

Chapter V: Discussion

Oral Task Discussion

From Tables 8-15, both using “he” error rate and using “she” error rate among 3 groups are not statistically significantly different. These results indicate that the Chinese students’ levels of English proficiency do not affect their gender pronoun usage. However, there are some differences of error rate between using “he” and using “she”. According to the t-test, the spoken using “he” error rate and spoken using “she” error rate is ($t = -5.125$ [47]); the significance is 0.00 which is less than 1% or 5%, and the significance shows that the difference between spoken using “he” error and spoken using “she” error is statistically significant.

Table 40 shows that the total spoken error rate of using “he” for all the students is 18.1%, and the total spoken error rate of using “she” for all the students is 45.7%.

Table 22

Total Using “He” Error Rate and Using “She” Error Rate in Oral Task

	IEP	E.COMP	SENIORS	total
M error rate	26.9%	17.5%	14.5%	18.1%
F error rate	43.9%	43.6%	48.0%	45.7%

Note: M error rate = using “he” error rate. F error rate = using “she” error rate. Total = all 48 students.

Figure 1 shows an interesting phenomenon; the Chinese ESL students tend to make the mistake of using a female gender pronoun instead of a male gender pronoun more frequently than they do in using male instead of female. In other words, the inter-group comparison reveals that the feminine pronoun is much more frequently misused than the masculine pronoun (Zhou, 2014).

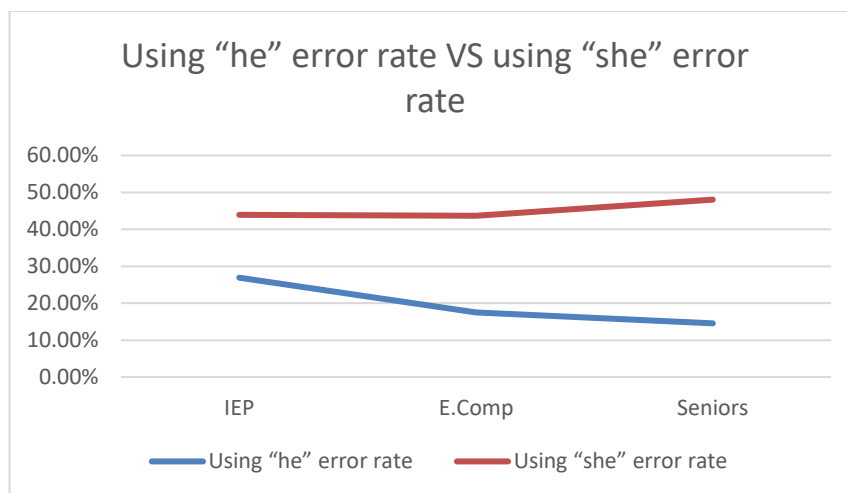


Figure 1. *Using "He" Error Rate VS Using "She" Error Rate in Spoken Among Three Groups*

From Tables 17-20, the combined error rate is 33.3 percent. The Chinese ESL students make approximately one third of their gender mistakes while they are using third-person pronouns. The pronoun usage rule in spoken Mandarin Chinese might be one of the possible interpretations of the error rate of students' interlanguage. When students perform speech within a limited amount of time or with less responding time to think about the gender, the students seemed to rely on overgeneralizations. However, the error rate varies with different English proficiency groups.

The one-way ANOVA test reveals that the mean of error rate between IEP and SENIORS is $F = 3.28$ and significance is 0.015, which is less than 0.050; the significance shows that the difference between IEP and SENIORS is statistically significant. Figure 2 indicates a steady drop; the error rate declines considerably from 41.2% in Group IEP to 29.5% in Group SENIORS. The error rate also decreases noticeably from 41.2% in Group IEP to 33.5% in Group E.COMP and from 33.5% in Group E.COMP to 29.5% in Group SENIORS respectively.

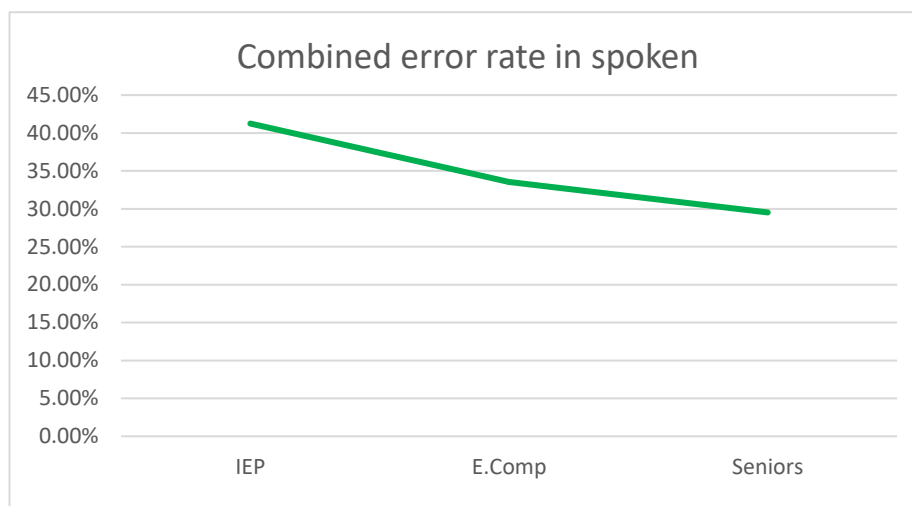


Figure 2. *Combined Error Rate in Spoken Among Three Groups*

The statistics from the one-way ANOVA test show that the ESL Chinese students who have higher English proficiency make fewer mistakes than those who are in lower English proficiency groups. After a few periods of exposure to an English-speaking environment, students might have had conversations with their peers, friends, and teachers regularly. Therefore, students could have improved internalization and inner speech concerning the use of pronouns in speaking. When this mental process of private speech develops into inner speech, mental activities need not remain ((Lantolf 2000). That might be one of the reasons that students who are in higher proficiency groups, or have longer exposure in an English environment perform better than those who are in lower proficiency groups, or have shorter exposure in an English environment.

Written Task Discussion

From Tables 21-27, most ANOVA tests show that both using “he” error rate and using “she” error rate among the 3 groups are not statistically significantly different. These results indicate that the Chinese students’ levels of English proficiency do not affect their gender pronoun usage within the same gender. However, there is one exception; the significance of

using “he” error rate in written between Group E.COMP and Group SENIORS is 0.033, meaning the difference of using “he” error rate between Group E.COMP and Group SENIORS was statistically significant. The average of using “he” error rate is only 2.3% in Group E.COMP and using “he” error rate is 0% in Group SENIORS. Since the number of students in Group E.COMP and Group SENIORS are different, the sample size might be the cause of the difference.

In contrary to spoken task, there are also tiny differences of error rate between the using “he” and using “she.” According to the t-test, the written using “he” error rate and written using “she” error rate is ($t = -1.876[47]$); the significance is 0.067, which is more than 1% or 5%, and the significance shows that the difference between written using “he” error and written using “she” error is not statistically significant.

Table 41 shows that the total written error rate of using “he” for all the students is 0.7%, and the total written error rate of using “she” for all the students is 2.8%.

Table 23

Total Using “He” Error Rate VS Total Using “She” Error Rate in Written

	IEP	E.COMP	SENIORS	total
M error rate	0.0%	2.3%	0.0%	0.7%
F error rate	4.2%	0.7%	0.0%	2.8%

Note: M error rate = using “he” error rate. F error rate = using “she” error rate. Total = all 48 students.

Even though Figure 3 fluctuated a little bit, the peaking point of gender error rate is still below 5%. The Chinese ESL students tend to make few mistakes when using either female gender pronoun or male gender pronoun no matter the levels of their English proficiency.

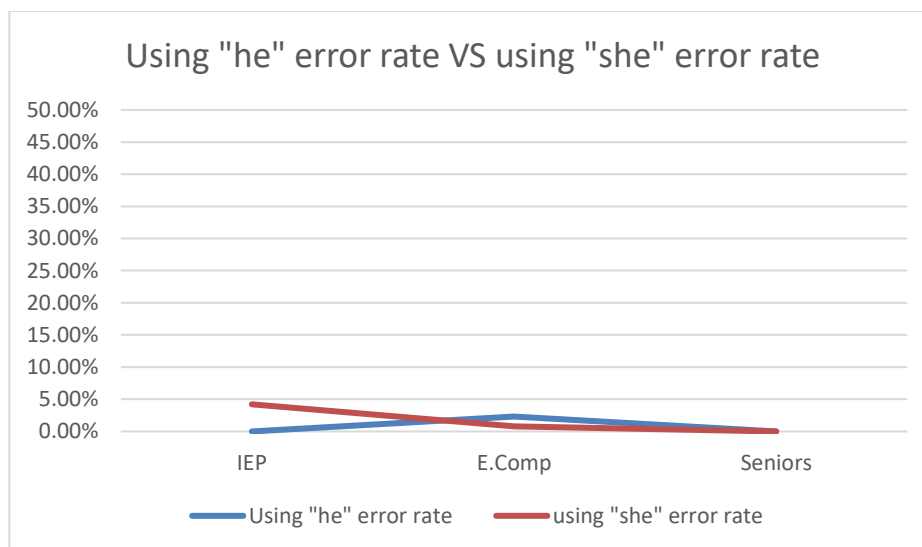


Figure 3. *Using “He” Error Rate VS Using “She” Error Rate in Written Among Three Groups*

The students’ first language and second language skills in an academic setting are interdependent. There is a common trait that is common across languages, which is an underlying cognitive/academic proficiency and makes possible the transfer of these skills across languages (Cummins, 1984). Since all the students were schooled in their L1 with solid academic instruction, they have already understood the rules of distinctions of third-person pronoun usage in general in their L1. The students only have to acquire a new label in L2 for an already-existing concept, and they already acquired that knowledge when they were taught in China. This common underlying proficiency might be one of the reasons why the students could perform more accurately in the written task.

Tables 30-33 present the mean of error rate of combined gender pronoun usage as being 1.7 percent. The Chinese ESL students make approximately less than 2 percent gender mistakes while they are using third-person pronouns in written task. The pronoun usage rule in spoken Mandarin Chinese also might be one of the reasons for the error rate of students’ interlanguage. Even though the students perform the writing task within a limited amount of time or with less

responding time to think about the gender, the students seem to have near flawless performance in writing. The error rate also does not vary too much no matter the level of their English proficiency.

The one-way ANOVA test reveals the mean of error rate between Group IEP and Group E.COMP, Group E.COMP and Group SENIORS, and Group IEP and Group SENIORS is $F=0.218$ and significance is 0.517, 0.828 and 0.618 respectively; the significance shows that the difference between Group IEP and Group E.COMP, Group E.COMP and Group SENIORS, and Group IEP and Group SENIORS is not statistically significant. Figure 4 indicates that the error rate in written fluctuates slightly among Group IEP (2.3%), Group E.COMP (1.4%) and Group SENIORS (1.6%).

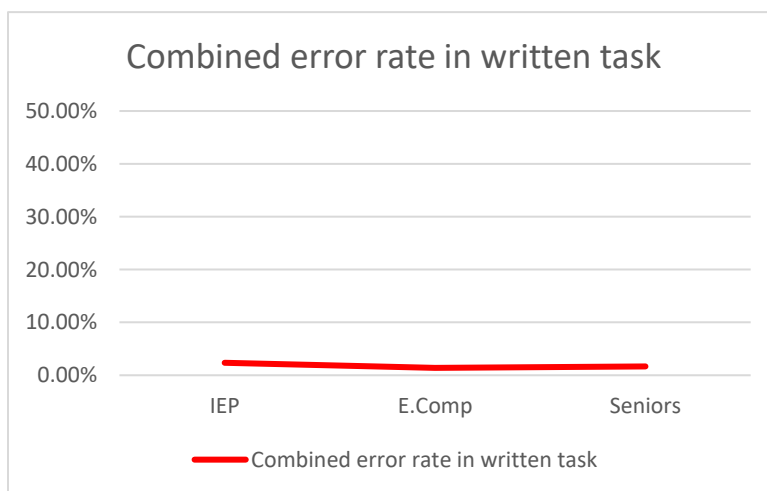


Figure 4. *Combined Error Rate in Written Among Three Groups*

The results show that the ESL Chinese students who have higher English proficiency do not make more errors than those who are in lower English proficiency groups. After a few periods of exposure to an English writing environment, students might have had many chances to write an English paper. However, it does not affect students' writing performance, and the exposure to English seems to not affect student's gender pronoun usage in writing.

Oral Task vs Written Task Discussion

All the t-tests within each group (IEP, E.COMP and SENIORS) from Tables 34-39 show that students have a lower combined error rate in written than they do in spoken, no matter the level of their English proficiency.

From Figure 5, the total speaking error rate decreases dramatically from Group IEP to Group SENIORS. On the contrary, the total writing error rate fluctuated slightly from Group IEP to Group SENIORS. Obviously, there is a huge gap between the spoken average error rate and the written average error rate. Even though the total speaking error rate drops significantly from Group IEP to Group SENIORS, it remains much higher than the total writing errors.

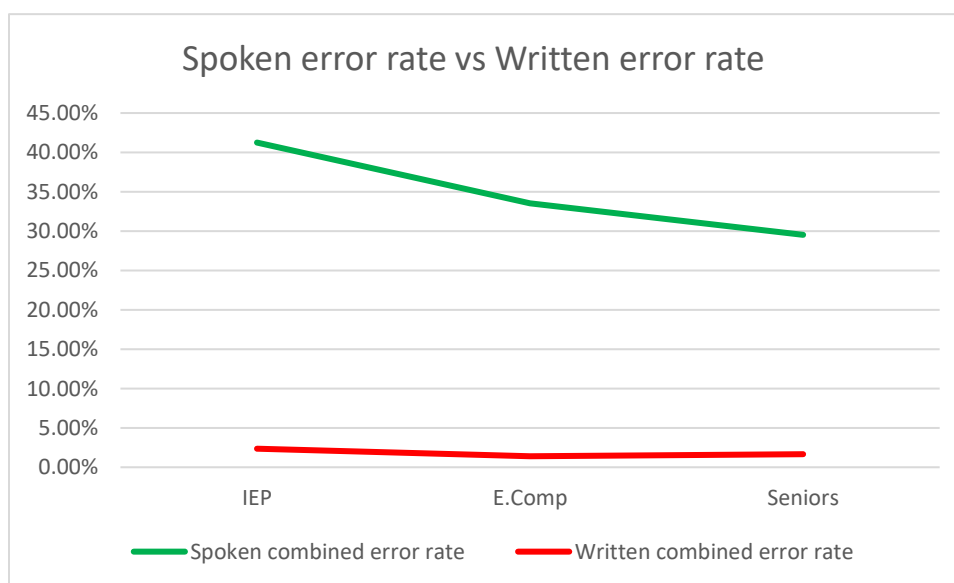


Figure 5. *Total Speaking Combined Error Rate vs Total Writing Combined Error Rate Among Three Groups*

Although the total writing error rate varies slightly, it remains lower than 5 percent and we can possibly assume that the Chinese ESL students have already acquired the L2 syntax competence of pronoun usage in English. The analysis of the data is necessary to draw an outcome that the Chinese ESL students perform greater speech accuracy of third-person pronoun

usage in written L2 than in spoken. Despite the rules of pronoun usage being the same between spoken English and written English, there is still approximately a 30 percent difference between total speaking error rate and total writing error rate.

Chapter VI: Conclusion

Observing the records elicited from the research, analysis of the data is necessary to draw conclusions to answer my research question. Overall, the error rate in speaking was 33.3% among all 48 of the students, which is much higher than the error rate in writing. This suggests that the pronoun usage rule in Mandarin Chinese that lacks distinction of third-person pronouns of gender can be one of the possible explanations for the speaker's errors in use of the third-person pronoun in spoken English. Although we cannot see into the minds of the subjects to directly observe what causes the errors that they make, we can make educated inferences from their output. Saville-Troike (2006) says, "Just as we cannot directly observe mental capacity, we cannot directly observe developmental processes, but we can infer from the utterances which learners understand and produce at different stages what processes are possibly taking place" (p. 19). All the informants could be experiencing negative transfer of prior knowledge from L1 to L2 in speaking English as demonstrated by the low pronominal accuracy rates in their speech. Nevertheless, the accurate rate of students' oral pronoun performance is increasing after nearly 2 years exposure to an English language environment. They may also have appropriate positive transfer of their knowledge of the written Mandarin Chinese pronominal system to the English pronominal system, and the students' writing performance only fluctuates slightly and sustains over time.

Since students' "use of linguistic competence in the production and comprehension of language" (Fromkin et al., 2007, p.565) in written is nearly flawless compared to the high error rate in spoken, it can possibly be concluded that the Chinese students have already acquired the competence of the third-person pronoun knowledge in written English. However, since there is no distinction of pronoun usage between spoken English and written English, we can also

possibly interpret that the students could be suffering from extra linguistic factors such as nervousness, fear, or inattention because the limited responding time in spoken is still not a sufficient amount of time for them to transfer their competence perfectly into performance. Attention also plays a significantly positive role in avoiding he/she misuse, which can be seen from the lowering of errors and the increase of its self-repair (Zhou, 2014). If the students have longer responding time in oral speech, the increasing attention may be particularly helpful for them to refrain from the misuse of pronoun. The cognitive motivation underlying attention as conscious and selective self-monitoring bear such multiple functions as alerting, orienting and detecting (Zhou, 2014).

Lack of Communicative Language Training (CLT) can be an alternative explanation, due to the gap between spoken error rate and written error rate, since communication practice in the classroom is pedagogically useful because it represents a necessary and productive stage in the transfer of classroom learning to the outside world (Allwright, 1984). However, the resistance to the communicative approach has an explanation rooted in Chinese philosophy, culture, and basic concepts of education (Rao, 1996). In China, it is unlikely to find an environment conducive to learning English (Anderson, 1993). The lack of integration and practice while the students are learning English in a Chinese classroom context may result in the inability to apply what they have learned in the classroom. This greatly limits Chinese speakers in communicating effectively with Westerners (Rao, 1996). However, more data in the form of comprehensible output must be gathered in order to reveal more about the speakers' interlanguage system.

Implication to Chinese ESL Classroom

Since this study has confirmed that Chinese students would have more error rates in spoken than in written, and they would have more error rates in using “she” error rates than using

“he” error rates, it presents implications to ESL teachers in the U.S. working with Chinese students. Introducing CLT will assist learners in developing greater competence in the use of English for communication and they will no longer be communicatively incompetent (Liao, 2004). Increasing the communicative approach is viable and necessary for ESL teaching in an ESL classroom. ESL teachers should emphasize classroom interactions, and create lesson plans or curriculums to practice and improve their third-person pronoun usage in speaking. The ESL teachers also can implement opportunities for students to overcome the using “she” errors by additional classroom activities such as creating more male characters in a narrative context to help the students avoid using female pronouns instead of using male pronouns. The interaction methodology also needs to be meticulously designed, because China has its own special traditional teaching environment. Chinese teachers should not just directly adopt an imported western communicative language teaching curriculum (Liao, 2004). An understanding of the characteristic of traditional Chinese educational practices and of Chinese learning styles should be useful knowledge for all ESL teachers of Chinese students who have attended traditional Chinese schools for some of their instruction in English language learning (Rao, 1996).

Limitations

In this research, there are some limitations concerning the data collection. The small number of participants in Group IEP is the first limitation; the study only focused on a small-scale case study of 10 Chinese ESL students in Group IEP. However, in Group SENIORS, there were 22 participants which is more than double that of Group IEP. Taking a larger group of students could exponentially develop the results and validity of this study.

Limited range of questions related to gender information is the second limitation. Some students did not generate enough information related to gender pronouns, and sufficient and

complex questionnaires could expand the results and validate my research. There is an interesting phenomenon that some students may use the same gender continuously during their whole speech. The students also might gain an initial perception of the initial gender, and would just follow that initial pattern in answering all the questions with the same genders in one part of the conversation. Some of the initial cognition just coincidentally matched the patterns of following genders.

This research also did not categorize the functional descriptors of pronouns such as object pronouns, reflexive pronouns, and possessive pronouns. This study generated those functional descriptors into two big categories which are male usage and female usage. There is no distinction between third-person pronouns as subjects and as objects in spoken Mandarin Chinese, whereas in English there is the spelling and pronunciation distinction between third-person pronouns as objects and as subjects, and those differences may also lead to different accuracy outcomes.

Expanding the study to the mentioned areas may render different outcomes of this research; it also may deliver different results which may provide more data to support the current hypothesis. Expanding the research might also lead to future studies in Mandarin Chinese students' written and speaking transference of L1 systems/knowledge to their L2.

Future Study

There are many directions that this study could go in the future. Expanded studies including other language systems could broaden the results and validate my research. Because of the features of the third-person pronoun usage of Mandarin, this study can only point to some possible explanations in this language. A future study could recruit more students who speak different L1s which have different features of third-person pronoun usage from Mandarin. For

example, like English, French has a distinction between spoken male pronoun usage (il) and spoken female pronoun usage (elle). If the French ESL students could perform a more accurate rate of third-person pronoun usage in English than Chinese ESL students, the researchers can further extract a conclusion to support my research question. As another example, unlike either English or Mandarin, Persian has no distinction between the third-person pronouns in either written or spoken language. If the students whose L1 is Persian performed differently in third-person pronoun usage in English from French or Chinese students, it could also lead this study in other directions. This variation of features in different types of language systems may render diverse outcomes.

The results of this study show that Chinese ESL students make more third-person pronoun errors in spoken than in written tasks. However, this study did not collect any other kinds of errors aside from this specific pronoun usage. The frequency of pronoun usage error rate in this study is very prominent. Nevertheless, in general, L2 English speakers may make more errors of all types in spoken than in written communication. The general pattern errors of L2 English speakers should also be considered.

The result that the feminine pronoun is much more frequently overused than the masculine pronoun in spoken English by the Chinese ESL students also leads to other avenues of future study. The result from this study seems to oppose the idea of patriarchy, because the general tendency is to use the male pronoun more than the female pronoun. This interpretation of the phenomenon in my study is currently conjecture since this study is focusing on the difference of pronoun usage between spoken and written tasks. This interpretation additionally gives a future direction and basis for other researchers to study. To further explain the phenomenon of my study, the suggested methodology could examine the neutral third-person pronoun. For

example, a movie clip with several [-animate] objects which have some different identifiable appearances and movements could be used to test Chinese ESL speakers' neutral third-person pronoun usage in spoken English. The research could examine if "*it*" would also be frequently confused with "*she*" or "*he*," and which third-person pronoun would be more frequently misused. The result could also lead to many other hypotheses regarding the impact of patriarchy.

Students with various English proficiency levels, and with different length of exposure in an English language environment could be used to elicit more data. Exposure to a native English-speaking environment is essential to L2 acquisition. Students might have better performance in use of third-person pronouns in gender if they receive a larger number of hours of L2 input exposure. Observing students in a longitudinal study during their semester or academic year could expand this study as well. The L2 learner tends to monitor his or her own form (Lightbown & Spada, 2013). The students are either have better self-monitoring or have acquired intuitive sense of their L2. Monitoring cannot be used at all times because of the communicative demands for speed. This theory can also explain why the students could not perform better in speaking when a shorter response time was given. The students in study have a maximum of 2 years exposure to English. If they had been exposed to English for longer time, they could react and translate everything from L1 to L2 rapidly enough to be perceived as spontaneous speech. Self-monitoring could be very useful for oral speaking. Additional studies and research could validate and further refine my hypothesis.

Expanded studies for other cases of pronouns could also widen the results. The discourse of this project should include more discussion of all the pronouns which contain gender information in English, such as: object pronouns, possessive pronouns, possessive adjectives, and reflexive pronouns. Future studies also need to consider the gender differences between

plural pronouns and singular pronouns in Mandarin. For example, the subject pronoun “they” has gender information in written Mandarin; however, there is no gender information in English. If there is only one pronoun that Chinese students can write as a plural pronoun, the accuracy of plural pronoun usage in English might be fairly high. In this case, future studies should consider if this is a positive transfer or a negative transfer. This will also link to differences among other cases in English such as object, subject, possessive, and reflexive pronouns.

References

- Allwright, R. (1984). The importance of interaction in classroom language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 5, 156-171
- Bennui, P. (2008). A study of L1 interference in the writing of Thai EFL students. *Malaysian Journal of ELT Research*, 4, 72-102.
- Cai, H. & Cai, L. J. (2015). An exploratory study on the role of L1 Chinese and L2 English in the cross-linguistic influence in L3 French. *International Journal of Language Studies*, 9 (3), 1-30.
- Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a Global language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cummins Jim (1984). Language proficiency, bilingualism and academic achievement. From J.Cummins, *Bilingualism and special education: Issues in assessment and pedagogy*. San Deigo, CA: College-Hill.
- Dong, Y., Wen, Y., Zeng, X. & Ji, Y. (2014). Exploring the cause of English pronoun gender errors by Chinese learners of English: evidence from the self-paced reading paradigm. *J Psycholinguist Res* 44:733-747.
- Feng, A. (2009). English in China: convergence and divergence in policy and practice. *AILA Review*, 22, 85-102.
- Fromkin, V., Rodman, R. & Hyams, N. (2007). *An introduction to language*. Boston, M.A.: Michael Rosenberg.
- Galloway, N. & Rose, H. (2015). The history of English. *Introducing globe Englishes*. (pp. 1-27). New York: Routledge.
- Gass, S. & Mackey, A. (2007). *Data elicitation for second and foreign language research*. Routledge

- Gregersen, T. & Horwitz E. K. (2002). Language learning and perfectionism: anxious and non-anxious language learners' reactions to their own oral performance. *The Modern Language Journal*, 86(4), 562-570. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1192725>
- Koffi, E. (2010). The organization and definition of syntactic concepts. *Applied English Syntax*. Dubuque, I.A.: Kendall Hunt Publishing Company.
- Kowal, S., O'Connell, D. C., & Sabin, E. J. (1975). Development of temporal patterning and vocal hesitations in spontaneous narratives. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, 4, 195–207.
- Liang, L., Wen Y., & Dong, Y. (2017). Gender constraint in L1 and L2 reflexive pronoun resolution by Chinese-English bilinguals. *Journal of Neurolinguistics*, 45, 1-12. Retrieved from <http://www.elsevier.com/locate/jneuroling>
- Liao, X. (2004). The need for communicative language teaching in China. *ELT Journal*. 58 (3), 270-273. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Li, C. N. & Thompson, S. A. (1981). *Mandarin Chinese: A functional reference grammar*. University of California Press.
- Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. M. (2013). Explaining second language learning. In Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. M. (Eds.), *How languages are learned* (pp. 103-122). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Marcucci, D. (2011). Evolution of love pantomime. *Youtube*, June 29, 2011. Retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QXE_pKsHnzI.
- Rao, Z. (1996). Reconciling communicative approaches to the teaching of English with traditional Chinese methods. *Research in the teaching of English*, 30(4), 458-471.

- Rao, Z. (2011). Bridging the gap between teaching and learning styles in East Asian contexts. *TESOL Journal*, 11(2), 5-28
- Reagan, T. (2018). The role of Confucius. *Non-western educational traditions*. (pp. 199 -232). New York: Routledge.
- Saville-Troike, M. (2006). The linguistics of second language acquisition. In Saville-Troike, M. (Eds.), *Introducing Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 31-62). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sag, I. A. & Wasow, T. (2011). Performance-compatible competence grammar. In Robert Borsley & Kersti Borjars (eds.), *Non-transformational syntax*. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.
- Slabakova, R. (2017). Pronoun Interpretation in the second language: Effects of Computational Complexity. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8, 1-12.
- Su, J., Molinaro, N., Gillon-Dowens, M., Tsai, P. S., Wu, D.H. & Carreiras, M. (2016). When “he” can also be “she”: an ERP study of reflexive pronoun resolution in written Mandarin Chinese. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 7, 1-15.
- Tang, C. (2015). Applications of stalling mechanisms in Chinese-English bilinguals’ L1 and L2 spoken discourse. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 19(1), 92-114.
- Tarone, E. (2006). Interlanguage. *Encyclopedia of language and linguistics*, 4, 747-752.
- TheHorrorReviews. (2013). Pantomime: Date gone bad then great. *Youtube*, Feb, 27, 2013. Retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dGFYRCvR_II.
- Wei, L. (2012). Should English teachers in China enact the communicative language teaching approach? A narrative inquiry into Chinese students’ English-using experience in the U.S. *Unpublished Doctor of Education Dissertation*, Houston: University of Houston.

Zhou, L. (2014). A study on misuse of he/she in oral English: effects of attention. *Journal of Zhejiang University*, 44(6), 186-195.

Appendix A: IRB Approval



Institutional Review Board (IRB)

720 4th Avenue South AS 210, St. Cloud, MN 56301-4498

Name: Rui Gu
Email: rgu@stcloudstate.edu

IRB PROTOCOL DETERMINATION: Expedited Review-1

Project Title: An examination of Pronoun Usage with Gender Semantic Features between spoken and written English by Chinese ESL Students

Advisor: Choonyoung Kim

The Institutional Review Board has reviewed your protocol to conduct research involving human subjects. Your project has been: **APPROVED**

Please note the following important information concerning IRB projects:

- The principal investigator assumes the responsibilities for the protection of participants in this project. Any adverse events must be reported to the IRB as soon as possible (ex. research related injuries, harmful outcomes, significant withdrawal of subject population, etc.).

- For expedited or full board review, the principal investigator must submit a Continuing Review/Final Report form in advance of the expiration date indicated on this letter to report conclusion of the research or request an extension.

- Exempt review only requires the submission of a Continuing Review/Final Report form in advance of the expiration date indicated in this letter if an extension of time is needed.

- Approved consent forms display the official IRB stamp which documents approval and expiration dates. If a renewal is requested and approved, new consent forms will be officially stamped and reflect the new approval and expiration dates.

- The principal investigator must seek approval for any changes to the study (ex. research design, consent process, survey/interview instruments, funding source, etc.). The IRB reserves the right to review the research at any time.

If we can be of further assistance, feel free to contact the IRB at 320-308-4932 or email ResearchNow@stcloudstate.edu and please reference the SCSU IRB number when corresponding.

IRB Chair:

Dr. Benjamin Witts
Associate Professor- Applied Behavior Analysis
Department of Community Psychology, Counseling, and Family Therapy

IRB Institutional Official:

Dr. Latha Ramakrishnan
Interim Associate Provost for Research
Dean of Graduate Studies

OFFICE USE ONLY

SCSU IRB# 1712 - 2236	Type: Expedited Review-1	Today's Date: 2/20/2018
1st Year Approval Date: 2/20/2018	2nd Year Approval Date:	3rd Year Approval Date:
1st Year Expiration Date: 2/19/2019	2nd Year Expiration Date:	3rd Year Expiration Date:

Appendix B: Narrative Task

Appendix B-1

Silent film directions for narrating film A (NF-A) speaking version.

Student Number:

Please read each question and prepare to speak after you read the questions. You have 30 seconds to read. After finishing reading, you have 2 minutes to speak.

1. Describing every character that you saw with as much detail as possible, such as, age, gender, hair color, clothes. What did the characters do in the film?
2. How would you describe the relationship among those characters?

Silent film directions for narrating film A (NF-A) writing version.

Student Number:

Please read each question and prepare to write a short paragraph after you read the questions. You have 30 seconds to read. After finishing reading, you have 5 minutes to write you answer in one short paragraph.

1. Describing every character that you saw with as much detail as possible, such as, age, gender, hair color, clothes. What did the characters do in the film?
2. What did the character s do in the film?
3. How would you describe the relationship among those characters?

Appendix B-2

Silent film directions for narrating film B (NF-B) speaking version.

Student Number:

Please read each question and prepare to speak after you read the questions. You have 30 seconds to read. After finishing reading, you have 2 minutes to speak.

1. Describing every character that you saw with as much detail as possible, such as, age, gender, hair color, clothes. What did the characters do in the film?
2. What did the character s do in the film?
3. How would you describe the relationship among those characters?

Silent film directions for narrating film B (NF-B) writing version.

Student Number:

Please read each question and prepare to write a short paragraph after you read the questions. You have 30 seconds to read. After finishing reading, you have 5 minutes to write you answer in one short paragraph.

1. Describing every character that you saw with as much detail as possible, such as, age, gender, hair color, clothes. What did the characters do in the film?
2. What did the character s do in the film?
3. How would you describe the relationship among those characters?

Appendix C: Tables of Pronoun Usage

Tables 24-26: Using “He” Error Rate in Spoken

Table 24: *Error Rate of Using “He” in Spoken from IEP Group*

SubjID	SP M	SP M for F	M % wrong
1	6	3	50.0%
2	2	0	0.0%
3	4	1	25.0%
4	2	0	0.0%
5	12	1	8.3%
6	2	1	50.0%
7	7	2	28.5%
8	8	4	50.0%
9	7	4	57.1%
10	3	0	0.0%
mean			26.9%

Note: SubID = Student. SP M = number of times of using “he”. SP M for F = number of times using male pronoun when the correct choice would have been female pronoun. M % wrong = Error rate of using “he”.

Table 25: *Error Rate of Using “He” in Spoken From E.COMP Group*

SubjID	SP M	SP M for F	M % wrong
11	1	0	0.0%
12	4	0	0.0%
13	7	4	57.1%
14	12	4	33.3%
15	1	0	0.0%
16	5	1	20.0%
17	1	0	0.0%
18	3	0	0.0%
19	4	2	50.0%
20	5	1	20.0%
21	6	1	16.6%
22	7	2	28.5%
23	3	0	0.0%
24	15	1	6.6%
25	6	2	33.3%
26	7	1	14.2%
mean			17.5%

Table 26: *Error Rate of Using “He” in Spoken from SENIORS Group*

SubjID	SP M	SP M for F	M % wrong
27	5	1	20.0%
28	6	1	16.6%
29	4	1	25.0%
30	8	0	0.0%
31	19	1	5.2%
32	6	1	16.6%
33	2	0	0.0%
34	9	2	22.2%
35	5	1	20.0%
36	3	0	0.0%
37	6	1	16.6%
38	6	1	16.6%
39	3	1	33.3%
40	15	3	20.0%
41	3	1	33.3%
42	3	0	0.0%
43	12	0	0.0%
44	10	0	0.0%
45	8	2	25.0%
46	10	2	20.0%
47	6	1	16.6%
48	8	1	12.5%
mean			14.5%

Tables 27-29: Using “She” Error Rate in Spoken

Table 27: *Error Rate of Using “She” in Spoken from Group IEP*

SubjID	SP F	SP F for M	SP F % wrong
1	7	1	14.2%
2	6	3	50.0%
3	7	4	57.1%
4	7	5	71.4%
5	15	3	20.0%
6	5	3	60.0%
7	2	1	50.0%
8	2	0	0.0%
9	6	4	66.6%
10	8	4	50.0%
mean			43.9%

Note: SP F = number of times of using “she”. SP F for M = number of times using female pronoun when the correct choice would have been male pronoun. F % wrong = Error rate of using “she”.

Table 28: *Error Rate of Using “She” in Spoken from Group E.COMP*

SubjID	SP F	SP F for M	SP F % wrong
11	7	2	28.5%
12	6	3	50.0%
13	3	2	66.6%
14	13	6	46.1%
15	8	4	50.0%
16	5	2	40.0%
17	7	3	42.8%
18	8	4	50.0%
19	4	1	25.0%
20	7	1	14.2%
21	2	2	100.0%
22	3	1	33.3%
23	12	7	58.3%
24	5	2	40.0%
25	8	2	25.0%
26	7	2	28.5%
mean			43.6%

Table 29: Error Rate of Using “She” in Spoken from Group SENIORS

SubjID	SP F	SP F for M	SP F % wrong
27	4	3	75.0%
28	9	2	22.2%
29	4	2	50.0%
30	4	0	0.0%
31	8	1	12.5%
32	2	2	100.0%
33	8	4	50.0%
34	4	2	50.0%
35	7	3	42.8%
36	5	4	80.0%
37	4	3	75.0%
38	6	3	50.0%
39	11	4	36.3%
40	4	2	50.0%
41	5	2	40.0%
42	9	4	44.4%
43	5	4	80.0%
44	4	3	75.0%
45	3	1	33.3%
46	5	1	20.0%
47	11	3	27.2%
48	7	3	42.8%
mean			48.0%

Tables 30-32: Total Combined Error Rate in Speaking

Table 30: *Total Combined Error Rate from Group IEP*

SubjID	total	Total wrong	% total wrong
1	13	4	30.7%
2	8	3	37.5%
3	11	5	45.4%
4	9	5	55.5%
5	27	4	14.8%
6	7	4	57.1%
7	9	3	33.3%
8	10	4	40.0%
9	13	8	61.5%
10	11	4	36.3%
mean			41.2%

Note: SubID = Student. total = number of times of combined pronoun usage. Total wrong = number of times using wrong third-person pronoun. % total wrong = Error rate of combined pronoun usage.

Table 31: *Total Combined Error Rate from Group E.COMP*

SubjID	total	Total wrong	% total wrong
11	8	2	25.0%
12	10	3	30.0%
13	10	6	60.0%
14	25	10	40.0%
15	9	4	44.4%
16	10	3	30.0%
17	8	3	37.5%
18	11	4	36.3%
19	8	3	37.5%
20	12	2	16.6%
21	8	3	37.5%
22	10	3	30.0%
23	15	7	46.6%
24	20	3	15.0%
25	14	4	28.5%
26	14	3	21.4%
mean			33.5%

Table 32: *Total Combined Error Rate from Group SENIORS*

SubjID	total	Total wrong	% total wrong
27	9	4	44.4%
28	15	3	20.0%
29	8	3	37.5%
30	12	0	0.0%
31	27	2	7.4%
32	8	3	37.5%
33	10	4	40.0%
34	13	4	30.7%
35	12	4	33.3%
36	8	4	50.0%
37	10	4	40.0%
38	12	4	33.3%
39	14	5	35.7%
40	19	5	26.3%
41	8	3	37.5%
42	12	4	33.3%
43	17	4	23.5%
44	14	3	21.4%
45	11	3	27.2%
46	15	3	20.0%
47	17	4	23.5%
48	15	4	26.6%
mean			29.5%

Tables 33-35: Error Rate of Using “He” in Written

Table 33: *Error Rate of Using “He” in Written from Group IEP*

SubjID	WR M	WR M forF	M % wrong
1	11	0	0.0%
2	10	0	0.0%
3	6	0	0.0%
4	4	0	0.0%
5	7	0	0.0%
6	11	0	0.0%
7	3	0	0.0%
8	5	0	0.0%
9	9	0	0.0%
10	4	0	0.0%
mean			0.0%

Note: SubID = Student. WR M = number of times of using “he” in written. WR MforF = number of time using male pronoun when the correct choice would have been female pronoun. M % wrong = Error rate of Using “he”.

Table 34: *Error Rate of Using “He” in Written from Group E.COMP*

SubjID	WR M	WR M forF	M % wrong
11	5	0	0.0%
12	6	0	0.0%
13	7	0	0.0%
14	10	1	10.0%
15	5	1	20.0%
16	9	0	0.0%
17	4	0	0.0%
18	6	0	0.0%
19	10	0	0.0%
20	11	0	0.0%
21	8	0	0.0%
22	12	0	0.0%
23	8	0	0.0%
24	6	0	0.0%
25	13	0	0.0%
26	14	1	7.14%
mean			2.3%

Table 35: *Error Rate of Using “He” in Written from Group SENIORS*

SubjID	WR M	WR M for F	M % wrong
27	3	0	0.0%
28	5	0	0.0%
29	5	0	0.0%
30	6	0	0.0%
31	9	0	0.0%
32	8	0	0.0%
33	5	0	0.0%
34	6	0	0.0%
35	10	0	0.0%
36	9	0	0.0%
37	2	0	0.0%
38	5	0	0.0%
39	9	0	0.0%
40	3	0	0.0%
41	4	0	0.0%
42	4	0	0.0%
43	8	0	0.0%
44	7	0	0.0%
45	8	0	0.0%
46	6	0	0.0%
47	13	0	0.0%
48	6	0	0.0%
mean			0.0%

Tables 36-38: Error Rate of Using “She” in written

Table 36: *Error Rate of Using “She” in Written from Group IEP*

SubjID	WR F	WR F for M	F % wrong
1	4	0	0.0%
2	2	0	0.0%
3	9	0	0.0%
4	5	1	20.0%
5	9	2	22.2%
6	7	0	0.0%
7	5	0	0.0%
8	6	0	0.0%
9	11	0	0.0%
10	8	0	0.0%
mean			4.2%

Note: WR F = number of times of using “she” in written. WR F for M = number of time of using female pronoun incorrectly. F % wrong = Error rate of using “she”.

Table 37: *Error Rate of Using “She” in Written from Group E.COMP*

SubjID	WR F	WR F for M	F % wrong
11	6	0	0.0%
12	6	0	0.0%
13	6	0	0.0%
14	9	0	0.0%
15	7	0	0.0%
16	2	0	0.0%
17	5	0	0.0%
18	3	0	0.0%
19	6	0	0.0%
20	5	0	0.0%
21	6	0	0.0%
22	3	0	0.0%
23	7	0	0.0%
24	11	0	0.0%
25	7	0	0.0%
26	8	1	12.5%
mean			0.7%

Table 38: *Error Rate of Using “She” in Written from Group SENIORS*

SubjID	WR F	WR F for M	F % wrong
27	7	1	14.2%
28	6	1	16.6%
29	5	0	0.0%
30	9	0	0.0%
31	12	0	0.0%
32	4	0	0.0%
33	7	0	0.0%
34	7	0	0.0%
35	5	0	0.0%
36	13	1	7.6%
37	6	0	0.0%
38	7	0	0.0%
39	4	1	25.0%
40	5	0	0.0%
41	5	0	0.0%
42	4	0	0.0%
43	5	0	0.0%
44	11	0	0.0%
45	4	0	0.0%
46	3	0	0.0%
47	6	1	16.6%
48	3	0	0.0%
mean			3.6%

Tables 39-41: Total Combined Error rate in Written

Table 39: *Total Combined Error Rate from Group IEP*

SubjID	Total	Total wrong	% total wrong
1	15	0	0.0%
2	12	0	0.0%
3	15	0	0.0%
4	9	1	11.1%
5	16	2	12.5%
6	18	0	0.0%
7	8	0	0.0%
8	11	0	0.0%
9	20	0	0.0%
10	12	0	0.0%
mean			2.3%

Note: SubID = Student. total = number of times of combined pronoun usage. Total wrong = number of times using wrong third-person pronoun. % total wrong = Error rate of combined pronoun usage.

Table 40: *Total Combined Error Rate from Group E.COMP*

SubjID	Total	Total wrong	% total wrong
11	11	0	0.0%
12	12	0	0.0%
13	13	0	0.0%
14	20	1	5.0%
15	12	1	8.3%
16	11	0	0.0%
17	9	0	0.0%
18	9	0	0.0%
19	16	0	0.0%
20	16	0	0.0%
21	14	0	0.0%
22	15	0	0.0%
23	15	0	0.0%
24	17	0	0.0%
25	20	0	0.0%
26	22	2	9.0%
mean			1.4%

Table 41: *Total Combined Error Rate from Group SENIORS*

SubjID	Total	Total wrong	% total wrong
27	10	1	10.0%
28	11	1	9.0%
29	10	0	0.0%
30	15	0	0.0%
31	21	0	0.0%
32	12	0	0.0%
33	12	0	0.0%
34	13	0	0.0%
35	15	0	0.0%
36	22	1	4.5%
37	8	0	0.0%
38	12	0	0.0%
39	13	1	7.6%
40	8	0	0.0%
41	9	0	0.0%
42	8	0	0.0%
43	13	0	0.0%
44	18	0	0.0%
45	12	0	0.0%
46	9	0	0.0%
47	19	1	5.2%
48	9	0	0.0%
mean			1.6%